

REVIEW

Discovery of P2X₇ receptor-selective antagonists offers new insights into P2X₇ receptor function and indicates a role in chronic pain states

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ATP-sensitive P2X₇ receptors are localized on cells of immunological origin including peripheral macrophages and glial cells in the CNS. Activation of P2X₇ receptors leads to rapid changes in intracellular calcium concentrations, release of the proinflammatory cytokine interleukin-1 β and following prolonged agonist exposure, the formation of cytolytic pores in plasma membranes. Both the localization and functional consequences of P2X₇ receptor activation indicate a role in inflammatory processes. The phenotype of P2X₇ receptor gene-disrupted mice also indicates that P2X₇ receptor activation contributes to ongoing inflammation. More recently, P2X₇ receptor knockout data has also suggested a specific role in inflammatory and neuropathic pain states. The recent discovery of potent and highly selective antagonists for P2X₇ receptors has helped to further clarify P2X receptor pharmacology, expanded understanding of P2X₇ receptor signaling, and offers new evidence that P2X₇ receptors play a specific role in nociceptive signaling in chronic pain states. In this review, we incorporate the recent discoveries of novel P2X₇ receptor-selective antagonists with a brief update on P2X₇ receptor pharmacology and its therapeutic potential.

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Abbreviations: AMP, adenosine 5'-monophosphate sodium salt; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; ATP- γ S, adenosine 5'-[γ -thio]triphosphate tetralithium salt; 2-MeS-ATP, 2-methylthioadenosine 5'-triphosphate; $\alpha\beta$ -me-ATP, α , β -methylene-adenosine 5'-triphosphate; A-438079, 3-(5-(2,3-dichlorophenyl)-1H-tetrazol-1-yl)methyl pyridine; A-740003, N-(1-[(cyanoimino)(5-quinolinylamino) methyl]amino)-2,2-dimethylpropyl)-2-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)acetamide; AZ11645373, 3-(1-(3'-nitrobiphenyl-4-yloxy)-4-(pyridine-4-yl)butan-2-yl)thiazolidine-2,4-dione; ADP, adenosine 5'-diphosphate monopotassium salt dihydrate; BBG, Brilliant Blue G; BzATP, 2,3-O-(4-benzoylbenzoyl)-ATP; CFA, complete Freund's adjuvant; FLIPR, fluorometric imaging plate reader; IL-1 β , interleukin 1 β ; KN62, (1-[N,O-bis(5-isoquinoline-sulfonyl)-N-methyl-L-tyrosyl]-4-phenylpiperazine); LL37, human cathelicidin-derived peptide; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MTX, maitotoxin; NF-kappa B, nuclear factor- κ B; oATP, ATP 2',3'-dialdehyde; pp38 MAPK, phosphorylated p38 MAPK; PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; PPADS, pyridoxal phosphate-6-azophenyl-2-4-disulfonic acid; TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor- α ; UTP, uridine 5'-triphosphate

Introduction

P2X₇ receptors belong to the family of ATP-sensitive ionotropic P2X receptors, which include seven homomeric receptor subtypes (P2X₁–P2X₇; North, 2002). Some of these receptor subunits also natively exist as functional heteromeric receptor combinations, such as P2X_{2/3} (North, 2002).

However, P2X₇ receptors are unique among the P2X receptor family as they are functional in only homomeric forms and are activated by high concentrations of ATP (>100 μ M) (Jacobson *et al.*, 2002). In addition, prolonged agonist exposure leads to formation of large cytolytic pores in the cell membrane (Surprenant *et al.*, 1996). The P2X₇ subunit, previously termed as the 'P2_Z receptor' (Di Virgilio *et al.*, 2001), was initially cloned from rat (Surprenant *et al.*, 1996), and then from human brain (Collo *et al.*, 1997) and human macrophages (Rassendren *et al.*, 1997a). P2X₇ receptors are selectively expressed on cells of hematopoietic lineage including mast cells, lymphocytes, erythrocytes, fibroblasts,

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peripheral macrophages and epidermal Langerhans cells (Surprenant *et al.*, 1996). Within the central nervous system, functional P2X₇ receptors are localized on microglia and Schwann cells as well as on astrocytes (Ferrari *et al.*, 1996; Collo *et al.*, 1997; Sim *et al.*, 2004). The existence of functional P2X₇ receptors on peripheral or central neurons remains controversial owing to the poor specificity of both antibodies and ligands targeting the rat P2X₇ receptor (Anderson and Nedergaard, 2006). In rat peripheral sensory ganglia (dorsal root), P2X₇ receptors appear to be selectively localized on glia cells, but not neurons (Zhang *et al.*, 2005).

Both the distribution of P2X₇ receptors and the fact that high concentrations of ATP are required to activate the receptor have led investigators to consider the possibility that this P2X receptor functions as a 'danger' sensor (Ferrari *et al.*, 2006). However, efforts to establish a generalized function for P2X₇ receptors are complicated by another distinguishing feature of this receptor subtype; at least 250 polymorphic forms of the P2X₇ receptor have been identified (Ferrari *et al.*, 2006). Among these variations, both gain-of-function (Cabrini *et al.*, 2005) and loss-of-function (Wiley *et al.*, 2003) single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been reported. Although some of these SNPs may have a predictive utility as biomarkers for some forms of leukemia (Wiley *et al.*, 2002) or extrapulmonary tuberculosis (Fernando *et al.*, 2007), to date, no clear disease association has been linked to a specific P2X₇ receptor polymorphism.

The multiplicity of polymorphic forms of the P2X₇ receptor is associated with the extended length of the C-terminal region of the receptor relative to other P2X receptors (Surprenant *et al.*, 1996). This region is essential for receptor-mediated cytolytic pore-forming activity (Surprenant *et al.*, 1996) and also contains putative interaction sites for lipopolysaccharide (Denlinger *et al.*, 2001), SH₂ domains (Kim *et al.*, 2001) and α -actin (Kim *et al.*, 2001). The mechanism(s) by which P2X₇ receptor activation leads to the formation of large cytolytic pores in cell membranes has not been definitively established. The available evidence indicates that the minimum stoichiometric conformation of P2X receptors is a trimer (Egan *et al.*, 2006). However, this work has been based on an analysis of channel conductance properties of P2X receptors rather than on potential downstream signaling mechanisms. It should also be noted that investigations of P2X receptor stoichiometry have primarily studied P2X receptor subtypes other than P2X₇ (Egan *et al.*, 2006). While originally it was hypothesized that pore formation resulted from intrinsic dilation of the channel (North, 2002), the inability of some cell types that express the cation permeable receptor to show agonist-evoked pore formation *in vitro* has led to the generation of data showing that pore formation results from P2X₇ receptor-mediated downstream signaling (Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004; Faria *et al.*, 2005) that ultimately may depend on the opening of nonselective hemichannels at the cell surface (Pelegrin and Surprenant, 2006).

Taken together, there is a growing body of data to indicate a pathophysiological role for P2X₇ receptors in inflammatory responses (Ferrari *et al.*, 2006). Interestingly, recent data from the P2X₇ receptor knockout mouse (Chessell *et al.*, 2005) and the development of new potent and selective P2X₇ receptor antagonists (Lappin *et al.*, 2005; Nelson *et al.*, 2006; Honore

et al., 2006b) also indicate a role for P2X₇ receptors in the onset and persistence of certain types of chronic pain. This article provides an update of the current pharmacology for the P2X₇ receptor, recent advances in understanding P2X₇ receptor signaling pathways as well as new insights into the therapeutic potential of P2X₇ receptor antagonist ligands for pain relief. Other recent reviews by Fields and Burnstock (2006), Ferrari *et al.* (2006), Gevert *et al.* (2006) and Khakh and North (2006) provide extensive overviews of P2X receptor physiology and pharmacology.

P2X₇ receptor pharmacology

Agonists. Brief agonist activation (<10s) of the P2X₇ receptor results in rapid and reversible channel opening that is permeable to Na⁺, K⁺ and Ca²⁺ (Surprenant *et al.*, 1996). Acute P2X₇ receptor activation also triggers a series of cellular responses, such as activation of caspases, cytokine release, cell proliferation, and apoptosis (Perregaux *et al.*, 2000; Panenka *et al.*, 2001; Chakfe *et al.*, 2002; North, 2002; Verhoef *et al.*, 2003; Kahlenberg and Dubyak, 2004). Unlike other members of the P2 receptor superfamily, homomeric P2X₇ receptors are activated by high concentrations of ATP (>100 μ M) and 2',3'-O-(4-benzoylbenzoyl)-ATP (BzATP), which has significantly greater potency (EC₅₀ = 20 μ M) than ATP (EC₅₀ > 100 μ M) (Jacobson *et al.*, 2002). The rank order agonist potency for activation of the P2X₇ receptor is BzATP \gg ATP, with 2MeSATP, ATP _{γ} S and ADP being essentially inactive (Jacobson *et al.*, 2002). The chemical structures of these agonists are shown in Figure 1.

However, P2X₇ receptors can also be primed and undergo agonist plasticity such that brief agonist exposure resulted in an apparent increase in potency to subsequent agonist exposure (Chakfe *et al.*, 2002). Furthermore, agonist priming also expands the agonist pharmacology such that both ADP and AMP can now activate the receptor (Chakfe *et al.*, 2002). Although BzATP is the most potent agonist for P2X₇ receptors, it is not a selective agonist for this receptor. BzATP is 100–1000 times more potent as an agonist at both P2X₁ and P2X₃ receptors than at P2X₇ receptors (Bianchi *et al.*, 1999). Consequently, a rank order of potency of nonselective purine agonists (BzATP \gg ATP \gg UTP \gg $\alpha\beta$ MeATP) has been utilized to identify P2X₇ receptors in native cell lines and tissue (Bianchi *et al.*, 1999; Anderson and Nedergaard, 2006).

Antagonists. The prototypic nonselective P2X receptor antagonists, suramin and pyridoxalphosphate-6-azophenyl-2',4'-disulfonate (PPADS; Figure 2), both block P2X₇ receptors with low affinity (K_i > 10 μ M; Table 1) and typically show noncompetitive antagonism (Jacobson *et al.*, 2002). Brilliant Blue G (BBG; pIC₅₀ = 5.1; Figure 2 and Table 1) is a more potent and selective antagonist with a 30- to 50-fold greater selectivity for rat versus human P2X₇ receptors (Jiang *et al.*, 2000). Large cationic inhibitors of calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II such as the isoquinoline, (1-[N,O-bis(5-isoquinoline-sulfonyl)-N-methyl-L-tyrosyl]-4-phenylpiperazine) (KN62) (Figure 2 and Table 1), potently block P2X₇ receptor function in a noncompetitive fashion (Gargett and Wiley, 1997). KN62, like other putative P2X₇ receptor antagonists, also shows significant species differences in

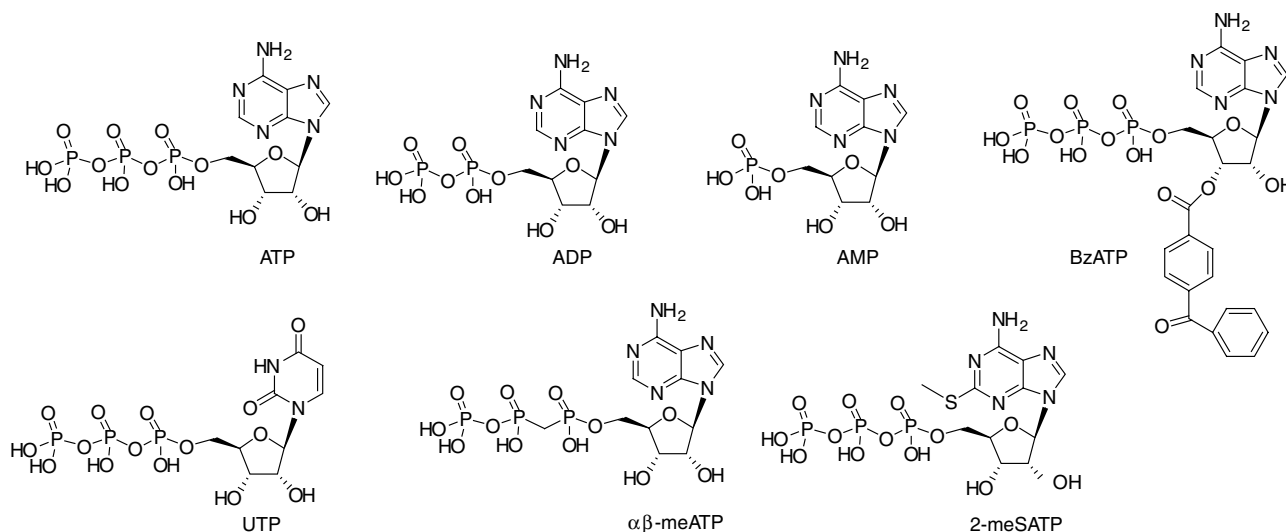


Figure 1 Structures of prototypical adenine nucleotides modified on the phosphate moiety that have been investigated as P2 receptor agonists.

in vitro assays (Humphreys *et al.*, 1998). Analysis of the magnitude of apparent species differences for P2X₇ antagonists is also complicated by the end point that is measured, cation flux and pore formation (by large dye, that is YO-Pro uptake), which requires different agonist incubation times (Gever *et al.*, 2006) with the latter end point being host-cell dependent (North, 2002).

ATP 2',3'-dialdehyde (oxidized-ATP, oATP; Figure 2) is an irreversible inhibitor of P2X₇ receptors that requires a 1- to 2-h incubation to inhibit functional activation of P2X₇ receptors (Di Virgilio, 2003). In light of its original use as a ligand for nucleotide binding proteins (Lowe and Beechey, 1982), oATP was initially used to block P2X₇ receptor-mediated responses in mouse macrophages (Murgia *et al.*, 1993). However, it must be noted that oATP has many other pharmacological actions including blockade of P2X₁ and P2X₂ receptors (Evans *et al.*, 1995) as well as inhibition of nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) and cytokine release (Murgia *et al.*, 1993; Beigi *et al.*, 2003; Ferrari *et al.*, 2006). Consequently, these newer findings raise further doubt on the utility of oATP to properly interrogate P2X₇-related function in other than selective recombinant receptor expression systems (Beigi *et al.*, 2003; Di Virgilio, 2003).

More recently, decavanadate, a polymeric form of vanadate (H₂V₁₀O₂₈⁴⁻), was reported also to be a reversible and competitive P2X₇ receptor antagonist (Michel *et al.*, 2006a). However, decavanadate also displays nonselective activity since it blocks P2X₂ and P2X₄ receptors, and at nanomolar concentrations, interacts with a number of other targets including activation of 5'-nucleotidase, inhibition of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) binding and inhibition of ribonuclease A (Michel *et al.*, 2006a). Thus, like oATP, the usefulness of decavanadate as a pharmacological tool for P2X₇ receptors is limited.

In 2003, two novel series of P2X₇ antagonists, composed of cyclic imides (Alcaraz *et al.*, 2003) and adamantane amides (Baxter *et al.*, 2003; Figure 2), were shown to be effective P2X₇ receptor antagonists and useful starting points for directed structure-function studies. However, these

compounds have not yet been evaluated for activity at P2 or other cell surface receptors. Stokes *et al.* (2006) recently published a more complete characterization of the cyclic imide P2X₇ antagonist, AZ11645373 (3-(1-(3'-nitrophenyl)-4-yloxy)-4-(pyridine-4-yl)butan-2-yl)thiazolidine-2,4-dione; Figure 2), which was shown to potently (IC₅₀ = 10–90 nM; Table 1) block human P2X₇ receptor-mediated cation influx and interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) release. However, like KN62, AZ11645373 shows preferential affinity for the human versus the rat P2X₇ receptor thus limiting its usefulness as an *in vivo* tool to examine P2X₇ receptor function in rat preclinical models.

In 2006, our group at Abbott Laboratories disclosed two novel series of P2X₇ antagonists: disubstituted tetrazoles and cyanoguanidines (Nelson *et al.*, 2006; Honore *et al.*, 2006b). Both series demonstrate enhanced potency and selectivity as antagonists at rat and human P2X₇ receptors compared to previous antagonists (Nelson *et al.*, 2006; Honore *et al.*, 2006b). Unlike other P2X₇ antagonists, these compounds are also reversible and competitive blockers. A-438079, 3-((5-(2,3-dichlorophenyl)-1H-tetrazol-1-yl)methyl)pyridine; Figure 2), from a disubstituted tetrazole series, potently blocked BzATP-stimulated changes in intracellular calcium concentrations (IC₅₀ = 100 and 300 nM at rat and human P2X₇ receptors, respectively; Table 1) and was essentially devoid of activity (IC₅₀ > 10 μ M) at other P2 receptors (Nelson *et al.*, 2006). Additionally, this compound showed little or no activity at a wide array of other cell-surface receptors and ion channels (Nelson *et al.*, 2006). A-438079 and several analogs were also shown to inhibit BzATP-stimulated IL-1 β release and pore formation in human THP-1 cells differentiated with LPS and IFN- γ into a macrophage-like phenotype (Nelson *et al.*, 2006).

Another novel P2X₇ antagonist pharmacophore from a cyanoguanidine series is represented by A-740003 ((N-(1-[(cyanoimino)(5-quinolinylamino) methyl]amino)-2,2-dimethylpropyl)-2-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)acetamide) (Figure 2; Honore *et al.*, 2006b). A-740003 is a highly specific and potent antagonist for both rat and human P2X₇ receptors

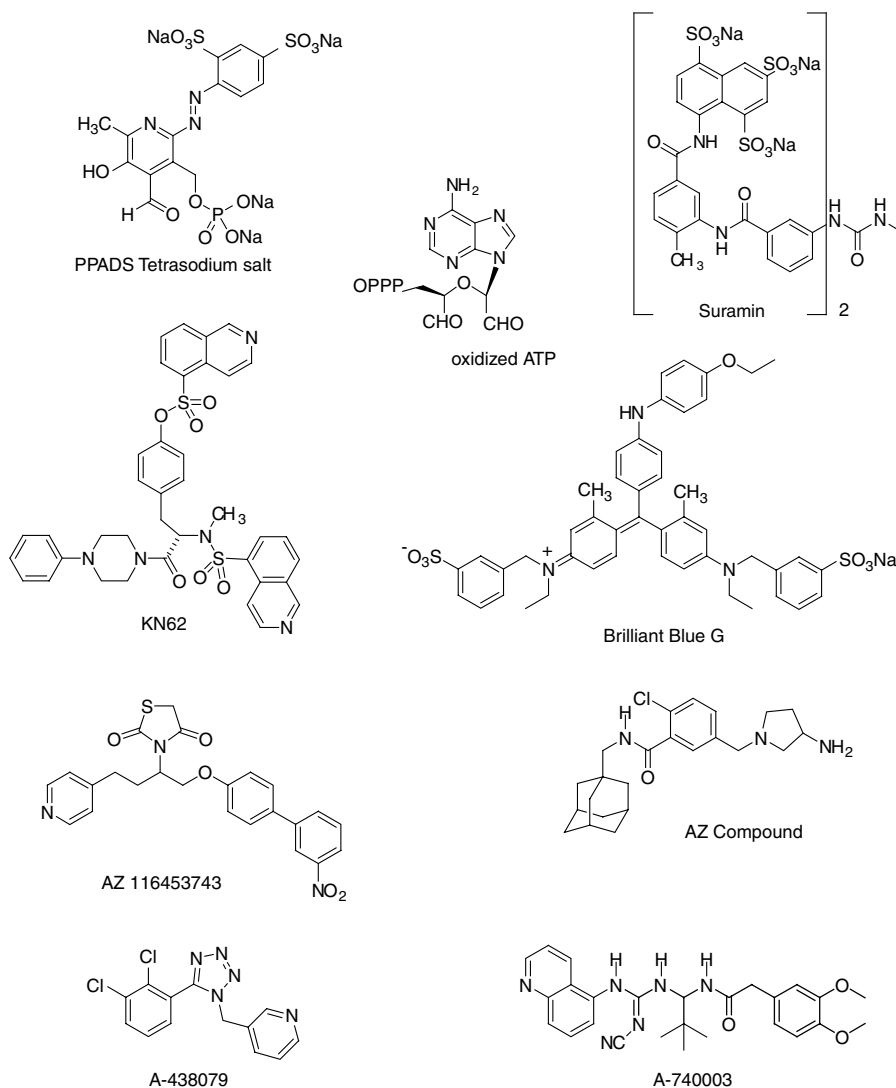


Figure 2 Structures of prototypical and novel antagonists of P2X₇ receptors. PPADS and suramin are nonselective antagonists, BBG has higher potency for rat versus human P2X₇ receptors whereas KN62 and the AZ compounds exhibit the reverse potency of human > rat P2X₇ receptors. A-740003 and A-438079 exhibited equivalent potency to both the rat and human P2X₇ receptors (see Table 1). BBG, Brilliant Blue G; PPADS, pyridoxal phosphate-6-azophenyl-2,4-disulfonic acid.

with potencies of 18–40 nM, respectively (Honore *et al.*, 2006b; Table 1). Similar to A-438079, A-740003 blocked P2X₇ receptor-mediated changes in intracellular calcium concentrations in a competitive fashion and was shown to be highly selective for P2X₇ compared to other P2 receptors as well as other cell-surface receptors and ion channels. In addition, A-740003 was more potent in blocking BzATP-evoked IL-1 β release and pore formation in differentiated human THP-1 cells than A-438079 (Honore *et al.*, 2006b). An additional feature of these compounds is that they have sufficient bioavailability following intraperitoneal administration to allow for their use in *in vivo* investigations on the role of P2X₇ receptors in various disease models (Nelson *et al.*, 2006; Honore *et al.*, 2006b).

P2X₇ receptor signaling

As noted above, activation of P2X₇ receptors results in a rapid but reversible channel opening that is permeable to

Ca²⁺, Na⁺ and K⁺ ions. P2X₇ receptor-mediated changes in intracellular potassium concentrations lead to the activation of caspase-1 and the rapid maturation and release of the proinflammatory cytokine, IL-1 β (Sanz and DiVirgilio, 2000; Kahlenberg and Dubyak, 2004; Perregaux *et al.*, 2000; Solle *et al.*, 2001; Ferrari *et al.*, 2006). ATP-stimulated IL-1 β release is independent of cytolysis, does not require P2X₇-mediated pore formation, and is blocked by P2X₇ receptor antagonists (Grahames *et al.*, 1999; Chessell *et al.*, 2001). Increased IL-1 β concentrations, in turn, trigger the induction of nitric oxide synthase, cyclooxygenase-2 and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) (Woolf *et al.*, 1997; Samad *et al.*, 2001; Parvathenani *et al.*, 2003; Burnstock, 2006). Activation of caspase 3 has also been linked to P2X₇ receptor activation and may underlie receptor-associated cytolytic mechanisms including pore formation (Perregaux *et al.*, 2001). Inhibitors of caspase 1 and 3 effectively block P2X₇ receptor-mediated IL-1 β release and Yo-Pro uptake, respectively (Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004).

Table 1 Functional pharmacological evaluation

| Antagonist | Rat P2X ₇ | Human P2X ₇ |
|---|----------------------|------------------------|
| [Ca ²⁺] _i pIC ₅₀ ± s.e.m. | | |
| A-740003 | 7.75 ± 0.03 | 7.36 ± 0.04 |
| A-438079 | 6.50 ± 0.20 | 6.90 ± 0.20 |
| AZ11645373 | >4 | 8.15 ^a |
| AZ compound ^b | ND | ND |
| PPADS | 5.10 ± 0.02 | 5.45 ± 0.03 |
| KN62 | <4 | 4.88 ± 0.18 |
| BBG | 5.08 ± 0.07 | <4 |
| Suramin | <4 | <4 |
| Yo-Pro activity pIC ₅₀ ± s.e.m. | | |
| A-740003 | 7.00 ± 0.02 | 7.03 ± 0.04 |
| A-438079 | 6.25 ± 0.20 | 6.70 ± 0.10 |
| AZ11645373 | >4 | 7.70 ^a |
| AZ compound ^b | 6.54 ± 0.32 | 8.38 ± 0.12 |
| PPADS | 5.92 ± 0.09 | 5.88 ± 0.03 |
| KN62 | <4 | 6.67 ± 0.02 |
| BBG | 6.22 ± 0.03 | 5.71 ± 0.09 |
| Suramin | <4 | <4 |
| THP-1 cells/Human P2X ₇ | | |
| IL-1β activity pIC ₅₀ ± s.e.m. | | |
| A-740003 | 7.00 ± 0.02 | |
| A-438079 | 6.40 ± 0.30 | |
| AZ11645373 | 7.68 ^a | |
| AZ compound ^b | 6.82 ± 0.08 | |
| PPADS | 5.92 ± 0.20 | |
| KN62 | 7.12 ± 0.16 | |
| BBG | 6.22 ± 0.03 | |

Abbreviations: BBG, Brilliant Blue G; PPADS, pyridoxal phosphate-6-azophenyl-2,4-disulfonic acid; ND, not determined; s.e.m., standard error of the mean.

^apIC₅₀ values derived from published results (Stokes *et al.*, 2006).

^bData from Fonfria *et al.* (2005).

Activation of P2X₇ receptors has also been associated with other downstream signaling pathways including phospholipase D (Humphreys and Dubyak, 1996), phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂), NF-κB (Ferrari *et al.*, 1997; Aga *et al.*, 2002) and mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs) (Aga *et al.*, 2002; Armstrong *et al.*, 2002; Bradford and Soltoff, 2002). Studies have shown that different MAPK kinases are affected by P2X₇ activation that vary depending on host cell systems. For example, in human astrocytoma 1321 cells, recombinant P2X₇ receptor activation mediates ERK1/2 upregulation (Gendron *et al.*, 2003) but not in differentiated human THP-1 cells (Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004). Recent work by Monterio da Cruz *et al.* (2006) supported the latter finding by demonstrating that ERK1/2 is activated by a number of extracellular nucleotides and that this activation is not dependent on ATP-induced pore formation.

Recent studies provide data showing that activation of P2X₇ receptors leads to downstream activation of p38 MAPK (Ono and Han, 2000; Armstrong *et al.*, 2002; Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004). For example, BzATP-evoked increases in phosphorylated p38 expression in THP-1 cells that had been differentiated into a macrophage phenotype (Donnelly-

Roberts *et al.*, 2004). This effect was fully blocked by p38 MAPK inhibitors and by KN62 as well as a novel cyanoguanidine P2X₇ receptor-selective antagonist (Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004, unpublished observations). Like its pore-forming activity (North, 2002) and other P2X₇ receptor downstream signaling mechanisms (Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004; Faria *et al.*, 2005), P2X₇ receptor-mediated activation of p38 MAPK is likely to be cell type-dependent. While some recent reports have demonstrated this possibility in THP-1 cells (Michel *et al.*, 2006b), a clear interpretation of the experimental data is complicated by the use of suboptimal cell differentiation conditions for p38 MAPK expression (Carter *et al.*, 2001) and the use of oATP as a P2X₇ antagonist, which has many other non-P2X₇ receptor-mediated activities.

Other reports (MacKenzie *et al.*, 2001; Verhoef *et al.*, 2003) have also implicated that many of the functional sequelae to P2X₇ receptor activation including IL-1β release, membrane blebbing and pore formation may be mediated by parallel rather than convergent intracellular signal transduction pathways (North, 2002). These data are consistent with the specific involvement of p38 MAPK in P2X₇ receptor-mediated pore formation as this mechanism does not contribute to pore formation induced by maitotoxin (MTX), a marine toxin isolated from dinoflagellates (Schilling *et al.*, 1999), or by human cathelicidin-derived peptide (LL37) (Ellsner *et al.*, 2004). Further, pore formation is not a unique property of P2X₇ receptors as prolonged agonist activation of other nondesensitizing P2X receptors such as P2X_{2a}, P2X_{2/3} and P2X₄, also leads to the formation of cell-surface pores (Khakh *et al.*, 1999; Virginio *et al.*, 1999; North, 2002; Donnelly-Roberts *et al.*, 2004), although with different time courses and pore sizes (Virginio *et al.*, 1999).

P2X₇ receptor-mediated Yo-Pro uptake does not occur in all cell types and may be dependent upon receptor density (North 2002). Some cell types such as the B-lymphocytes (Gu *et al.*, 2000), retinal muller cells (Pannicke *et al.*, 2000) and non-neuronal cells of the dorsal root ganglion (Zhang *et al.*, 2005) express functional P2X₇ receptors but yet do not form cytolytic pores. Thus, this disconnection has indicated the possibility that these two functional properties are not intrinsic to the P2X₇ receptor itself but require the assistance of secondary molecules that are host cell-dependent (North, 2002).

The ability of P2X₇ receptor activation to generate cytolytic pores has been clearly linked to interactions within the C-terminal domain of the receptor (Rassendren *et al.*, 1997b). Removal of this portion of the channel results in pore dilating properties similar to P2X₂ and P2X₄ receptors based on measuring time-dependent changes in NMDG⁺ permeability (Khakh *et al.*, 1999). Recent studies have shed light on differences in P2X₇ receptor-mediated pore formation between Yo-Pro and NMDG⁺ entry. North and co-workers (Jiang *et al.*, 2005) have shown that NMDG⁺ and Yo-Pro do not enter P2X₇ receptor-expressing cells by the same route further supporting the hypothesis that although pore formation is triggered by P2X₇ receptor activation, it is dependent on the involvement of downstream signaling interactions not involved in channel opening.

Both intrinsic P2X₇ receptor channel dilation and P2X₇ receptor-dependent recruitment of accessory proteins have

been proposed as two potential mechanisms necessary for pore formation (North, 2002). Data demonstrating that P2X₇ receptor pore formation is progressive, occurs in multiple cell types and has an identical pharmacology for the opening of the cation channel support the intrinsic receptor hypothesis. But recent data strongly suggest that pore formation involves accessory proteins such as heat shock proteins (for example, HSP90), chaperone-like proteins or hemichannels such as pannexins. Studies of the ubiquitously expressed HSP90 protein have shown that HSP90 might act as a negative regulator of P2X₇ receptor function because, geldanamycin, a HSP90 inhibitor, produced a twofold increase on P2X₇ receptor activation by agonists (Adinolfi *et al.*, 2003). A more recent report has demonstrated that the recruitment of pannexin-type hemichannels that are involved in gap junction formation (Barbe *et al.*, 2006) may contribute to pore formation following P2X₇ receptor activation (Pelegriin and Surprenant, 2006; Locovei *et al.*, 2007). Interestingly, pannexin-1 signaling is also required for the processing of caspase-1 and the subsequent P2X₇ receptor-mediated release of mature IL-1 β (Pelegriin and Surprenant, 2006). It was also demonstrated in these studies that pannexin siRNA selectively blocks P2X₇ receptor-induced pore formation, but not ionic currents further supporting separate pathways for these two distinct P2X₇ receptor-mediated functional events (Pelegriin and Surprenant, 2006). These recent data strongly suggest that the pannexin hemichannel may serve as a portal for P2X₇ receptor pore formation to occur and unlock the release of IL-1 β as well as to permit other downstream signaling events to proceed such as the upregulation of p38 MAPK.

Therapeutic significance

It is now well established that ATP acting at P2X₇ receptors serves as an efficient secondary stimulus for the maturation and release of IL-1 β from proinflammatory cells (Perregaux and Gabel, 1994; Mackenzie *et al.*, 2001; Ferrari *et al.*, 2006). As a consequence, P2X₇ receptor activation may function as a danger signal in the context of tissue trauma (Ferrari *et al.*, 2006). However, validation of this concept in disease models has been slow due to the previous lack of appropriate pharmacological tools. Additionally, initial phenotypic data from a P2X₇ receptor null mouse revealed unremarkable changes (Sikora *et al.*, 1999).

A detailed analysis of an independently generated P2X₇ receptor knockout mouse revealed that P2X₇ (–/–) mice show a disruption in cytokine signaling cascades with perturbation of ATP-induced processing of pro-IL-1 β in macrophages (Solle *et al.*, 2001). Using a monoclonal antibody-induced model of collagen arthritis, these investigators also demonstrated that P2X₇ (–/–) mice show a decreased incidence and severity of arthritis in this model as compared with wild-type control mice (Labasi *et al.*, 2002). A more recent study has demonstrated that P2X₇ knockout mice also show reduced pain sensitivity following both complete Freund's adjuvant-induced inflammation and partial injury of the sciatic nerve (Chessell *et al.*, 2005).

The finding that disruption of P2X₇ receptors not only altered inflammatory pain but also reduces pain associated

with frank nerve injury (Chessell *et al.*, 2005), provided new insights into the potential physiological role of P2X₇ receptors in sensory functions. Additionally, these data are also consistent with the mechanistic role of P2X₇ receptors in modulating IL-1 β release and the ability of IL-1 β to alter pain sensitivity in experimental models. Previous data have shown that endogenous IL-1 levels are increased in the nervous system in response to trauma associated with mechanical damage, ischemia, seizures and hyperexcitability (Touzani *et al.*, 2002). Increased IL-1 levels are also associated with enhanced nociceptive signaling in a concentration-related fashion (Bianchi *et al.*, 1998; Horai *et al.*, 2000). At the level of the spinal cord, blockade of IL-1 receptors with the IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1ra), results in reduced nociception in animal models of inflammation and nerve injury-induced pain (Maier *et al.*, 1993; Safieh-Garabedian *et al.*, 1995; Sommer *et al.*, 1999). Other genetic manipulations of IL-1 signaling including targeted gene disruption of the IL-1 type I receptor or the IL-1 accessory protein (IL-1acp) as well as transgenic overexpression of the IL-1ra (Wolf *et al.*, 2004) or IL-1 $\alpha\beta$ double knockout (Honore *et al.*, 2006a) have generated mice that show reduced nociceptive responses relative to wild-type animals.

Complementing these genetic data are recent studies using receptor-selective antagonists. Collectively, these studies indicate a specific role for P2X₇ receptor activation in pain signaling. Early work by Dell'Antonio *et al.* (2002a,b) showed that local administration of oATP reduced inflammation-induced mechanical hyperalgesia in rats. These results were attributed to pharmacological blockade of P2X₇ receptors. However, as noted above, oATP has weak affinity for P2X₇ receptors, slow kinetics and many other pharmacological actions that limit interpretations about P2X₇ receptor specificity. More direct support for a role of P2X₇ receptors in pain modulation are provided by the recent P2X₇ knockout study (Chessell *et al.*, 2005) and studies using selective antagonists (Nelson *et al.*, 2006; Honore *et al.*, 2006b). Similar to the nociceptive phenotype of mice lacking P2X₇ receptors (Chessell *et al.*, 2005) or lacking both isoforms of IL-1 (Honore *et al.*, 2006a), systemic administration of P2X₇ receptor-selective antagonists (for example, A-438079 and A-740003) produced dose-dependent antinociceptive effects in models of neuropathic (Nelson *et al.*, 2006; Honore *et al.*, 2006b) and inflammatory pain (Honore *et al.*, 2006a). Consistent with their *in vitro* potencies, A-740003 was more potent than A-438079 at reducing mechanical allodynia observed 2 weeks after spinal L5/L6 nerve ligation. These data are also consistent with an independent study of one of the adamantane P2X₇ antagonists that showed dose-dependent antinociception in an inflammatory pain model (Lappin *et al.*, 2005). These data illustrate the potential role of P2X₇ receptor modulation of IL-1 β in reducing nociception in neuropathic pain models.

The robust antinociceptive effects of P2X₇ antagonists in inflammatory pain models does not appear to be secondary to an anti-inflammatory effect as A-740003 was more efficacious in reducing nociception compared with paw edema in inflammation models (Honore *et al.*, 2006b). It should be noted, however, that the anti-inflammatory activity of P2X₇ antagonists may be more pronounced in

arthritis models as compared with acute (carrageenan) and subacute complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA) inflammatory models, where the contribution of IL-1 β to ongoing inflammatory processes may be more prominent than in chronic arthritis (Labasi *et al.*, 2002).

Summary and perspective

The discovery of P2X₇ receptor-selective antagonists has provided data demonstrating that the acute *in vivo* blockade of P2X₇ receptors significantly reduced nociception in animal models of persistent neuropathic and inflammatory pain. While there is growing appreciation for the role of P2X₇ receptor modulation of proinflammatory IL-1 processing (Ferrari *et al.*, 2006), the analgesic activity of P2X₇ receptor antagonists (Lappin *et al.*, 2005; Honore *et al.*, 2006b; Nelson *et al.*, 2006), indicates a specific role for P2X₇ receptors in neural–glial cell interactions associated with ongoing pain (Zhang *et al.*, 2005).

In addition to the analgesic effects of P2X₇ receptor antagonists, there exist multiple P2 receptor-based mechanisms by which ATP can alter nociceptive sensitivity following tissue injury (Fields and Burnstock, 2006). Evidence from a variety of experimental strategies including genetic disruption and the development of other selective antagonists has indicated that the activation of several P2X receptors, including P2X₃, P2X_{2/3}, P2X₄ and P2X₇, and P2Y (P2Y₂) receptors can modulate pain. For example, A-317491, a selective P2X₃ antagonist (Jarvis *et al.*, 2002) effectively blocks both CFA-induced inflammatory thermal hyperalgesia as well as mechanical and thermal hyperalgesia resulting from chronic constriction of the sciatic nerve. Intrathecally delivered antisense oligonucleotides specifically targeting P2X₄ receptors have been shown to decrease tactile allodynia following nerve injury (Tsuda *et al.*, 2003). In addition, activation of P2Y₂ receptors leads to sensitization of transient receptor potential vanilloid-1 (TRPV1) receptors (Tominaga *et al.*, 2001; Lakshmi and Joshi, 2005). Thus, ATP acting at multiple purinergic receptors either directly on neurons (for example, P2X₃, P2X_{2/3} and P2Y receptors) or through indirect neural–glial cell interactions (P2X₄ and P2X₇) appear to alter nociceptive sensitivity (Tsuda *et al.*, 2003; Inoue *et al.*, 2004; Zhang *et al.*, 2005).

As this article illustrates, the discovery of receptor-selective antagonists for individual P2X receptor subtypes has led to important insights into the roles of individual P2X receptors in chronic pain states. From a pharmacological perspective, there is presently a wider structural diversity of non-nucleotide P2X₇ receptor antagonist pharmacophores than have been described for P2X₃ receptors (Jarvis, 2003; Gever *et al.*, 2006) or for P2X₄ receptors, for which, no potent antagonists have yet been identified (Gever *et al.*, 2006). While both P2X₄ and P2X₇ receptors have been implicated in glial-based modulatory mechanisms involved in sensory neurotransmission (Tsuda *et al.*, 2003; Zhang *et al.*, 2005), the discovery of selective P2X₄ antagonists are needed to differentiate the respective roles of these receptors in pain signaling. The identification of novel P2X₇ receptor-selective antagonists has provided new research tools for both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies of P2X₇ receptor pharmacology and has

led to the generation of new data that indicates an expanded role for this receptor in pain signaling associated with nerve injury and inflammation.

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Conflict of interest

These authors are employees of Abbott Laboratories.

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